

Univoque numbers and an avatar of Thue-Morse

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Abstract

Univoque numbers are real numbers $\lambda > 1$ such that the number 1 admits a unique expansion in base λ , i.e., a unique expansion $1 = \sum_{j \geq 0} a_j \lambda^{-(j+1)}$, with $a_j \in \{0, 1, \dots, \lceil \lambda \rceil - 1\}$ for every $j \geq 0$. A variation of this definition was studied in 2002 by Komornik and Loreti, together with sequences called *admissible sequences*. We show how a 1983 study of the first author gives both a result of Komornik and Loreti on the smallest admissible sequence on the set $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$, and a result of de Vries and Komornik (2007) on the smallest univoque number belonging to the interval $(b, b+1)$, where b is any positive integer. We also prove that this last number is transcendental. An avatar of the Thue-Morse sequence, namely the fixed point beginning in 3 of the morphism $3 \rightarrow 31$, $2 \rightarrow 30$, $1 \rightarrow 03$, $0 \rightarrow 02$, occurs in a “universal” manner.

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1 Introduction

Komornik and Loreti determined in [18] the smallest *univoque* real number

a unique expansion $1 = \sum_{j \geq 0} a_j / \lambda^{j+1}$ with $a_j \in \{0, 1\}$ for every $j \geq 0$. The word “univoque” in this context seems to have been introduced (with a slightly different meaning) by Daróczy and Kátai in [12, 13], while characterizing unique expansions of the real number 1 was done by Erdős, Joó, and Komornik in [15]. The first author and Cosnard showed in [4] how the result of [18] parallels (and can be deduced from) their study of a certain set of binary sequences arising in the iteration of unimodal continuous functions of the unit interval that was done in [11, 2, 1]. The relevant sets of binary sequences occurring in references [2, 1], resp. in reference [18], can be defined by

$$\Gamma := \{A \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}, \forall k \geq 0, \bar{A} \leq \sigma^k A \leq A\}$$

$$\Gamma_{strict} := \{A \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}, \forall k \geq 1, \bar{A} < \sigma^k A < A\}$$

where σ is the *shift* on sequences and the *bar* operation replaces 0’s by 1’s and 1’s by 0’s, i.e., if $A = (A_n)_{n \geq 0}$, then $\sigma A := (a_{n+1})_{n \geq 0}$, and $\bar{A} := (1 - a_n)_{n \geq 0}$; furthermore \leq denotes the lexicographical order on sequences induced by $0 < 1$, the notation $A < B$ meaning as usual that $A \leq B$ and $A \neq B$. The smallest univoque number in (1, 2) and the smallest nonperiodic sequence of the set Γ both involve the Thue-Morse sequence (see for example [6] for more on this sequence).

It is tempting to generalize these sets to alphabets with more than 2 letters.

Definition 1 For b a positive integer, we will say that the real number $\lambda > 1$ is $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ -*univoque* if the number 1 has a unique expansion as $1 = \sum_{j \geq 0} a_j \lambda^{-(j+1)}$, where a_j belongs to $\{0, \dots, b\}$ for all $j \geq 0$. Furthermore, if $\lambda > 1$ is $\{0, 1, \dots, \lceil \lambda \rceil - 1\}$ -univoque, we will simply say that λ is *univoque*.

Remark 1 If $\lambda > 1$ is $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ -univoque for some positive integer b , then $\lambda \leq b + 1$. Also note that any integer $q \geq 2$ is univoque, since there is exactly one expansion of 1 as $1 = \sum_{j \geq 0} a_j q^{-(j+1)}$, with $a_j \in \{0, 1, \dots, q-1\}$, namely $1 = \sum_{j \geq 0} (q-1) q^{-(j+1)}$.

Komornik and Loreti studied in [19] the reals λ belonging to the interval $(1, b + 1]$ that are $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ -univoque. For their study, they introduced *admissible sequences* on the alphabet $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$. Denote, as above, by σ the *shift* on sequences, and by *bar* the operation that replaces every $t \in \{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ by $b - t$, i.e., if $A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0}$, then $\bar{A} := (b - a_n)_{n \geq 0}$. Also denote by \leq the lexicographical order on sequences induced by the natural

order on $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$. Then, a sequence $A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ on $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ is *admissible* if

$$\begin{aligned} \forall k \geq 0 \text{ such that } a_k < b, \quad \sigma^{k+1}A &< A, \\ \forall k \geq 0 \text{ such that } a_k > 0, \quad \sigma^{k+1}A &> \overline{A}. \end{aligned}$$

(Note that our notation is not exactly the notation of [19], since our sequences are indexed by \mathbb{N} and not $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$.) These sequences have the following property: the map that associates with a real $\lambda \in (1, b+1]$ the sequence of coefficients $(a_j)_{j \geq 0} \in \{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ of the greedy (i.e., the lexicographically largest) expansion of 1, $1 = \sum_{j \geq 0} a_j \lambda^{-(j+1)}$, is a bijection from the set of $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ -univoque λ 's to the set of admissible sequences on $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ (see [19]).

Now there are two possible generalizations of the result of [18] about the smallest univoque number in $(1, 2)$, i.e., the smallest admissible binary sequence. One is to look at the smallest (if any) admissible sequence on the alphabet $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$, as did Komornik and Loreti in [19], the other is to look at the smallest (if any) univoque number in $(b, b+1)$, as did de Vries and Komornik in [14].

It happens that the first author already studied a generalization of the set Γ to the case of more than 2 letters (see [1, Part 3]). Interestingly enough this study was not related to the iteration of continuous functions as was the study of Γ , but only introduced as a tempting formal arithmetico-combinatorial generalization of the study of the set of binary sequences Γ to a similar set of sequences with more than two values.

The purpose of the present paper is threefold:

- 1) *to show how the 1983 study [1, Part 3, p. 63–90] gives both the result of Komornik and Loreti in [19] on the smallest admissible sequence on $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$, and the result of de Vries and Komornik in [14] on the smallest number univoque number λ belonging to $(b, b+1)$ where b is any positive integer;*
- 2) *to bring to light a universal morphism that governs the smallest elements in 1) above, and to show that the infinite sequence generated by this morphism is an avatar of the Thue-Morse sequence;*
- 3) *to prove that the smallest univoque number belonging to $(b, b+1)$ (where b is any positive integer) is transcendental.*

The paper consists of five sections. In Section 2 below we recall some results of [1, Part 3, p. 63–90] on the generalization of the set Γ to a $(b+1)$ -

nonperiodic sequence of this set, completing results of [1, Part 3, p. 63–90]. In Section 3 we give two corollaries of the properties of this least sequence: one gives the result in [19], the other gives the result in [14]. The transcendence results are proven in the last section.

2 The generalized Γ and Γ_{strict} sets

Definition 2 Let b be a positive integer, and \mathcal{A} be a finite ordered set with $b + 1$ elements. Let $\alpha_0 < \alpha_1 < \dots < \alpha_b$ be the elements of \mathcal{A} . The *bar* operation is defined on \mathcal{A} by $\overline{\alpha_j} = \alpha_{b-j}$. We extend this operation to $\mathcal{A}^{\mathbb{N}}$ by $\overline{(a_n)_{n \geq 0}} := (\overline{a_n})_{n \geq 0}$. Let σ be the *shift* on $\mathcal{A}^{\mathbb{N}}$, defined by $\sigma((a_n)_{n \geq 0}) := (a_{n+1})_{n \geq 0}$.

We define the sets $\Gamma(\mathcal{A})$ and $\Gamma_{strict}(\mathcal{A})$ by:

$$\Gamma(\mathcal{A}) := \{A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0} \in \mathcal{A}^{\mathbb{N}}, a_0 = \max \mathcal{A}, \forall k \geq 0, \overline{A} \leq \sigma^k A \leq A\},$$

$$\Gamma_{strict}(\mathcal{A}) := \{A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0} \in \mathcal{A}^{\mathbb{N}}, a_0 = \max \mathcal{A}, \forall k \geq 1, \overline{A} < \sigma^k A < A\}.$$

Remark 2 The set $\Gamma(\mathcal{A})$ was introduced by the first author in [1, Part 3, p. 63–90]. Note that there is a misprint in the definition given on p. 66 in [1]: $a_{\beta-i}$ should be changed into $a_{\beta-1-i}$ as confirmed by the rest of the text.

Remark 3 A sequence belongs to $\Gamma_{strict}(\mathcal{A})$ if and only if it belongs to $\Gamma(\mathcal{A})$ and is nonperiodic. Namely, $\sigma^k A = A$ if and only if A is k -periodic; if $\sigma^k A = \overline{A}$, then $\sigma^{2k} A = A$, and the sequence A is $2k$ -periodic.

Remark 4 If the set \mathcal{A} is given by $\mathcal{A} := \{i, i+1, \dots, i+z\}$ where i and z are integers, equipped with the natural order, then for any $x \in \mathcal{A}$, we have $\overline{x} = 2i + z - x$. Namely, following Definition 2 above, we write $\alpha_0 := i, \alpha_1 := i+1, \dots, \alpha_z := i+z$. Hence, for any $j \in [0, z]$, we have $\overline{\alpha_j} = \alpha_{z-j}$, which can be rewritten $\overline{i+j} = i+z-j$, i.e., for any x in \mathcal{A} , we have $\overline{x} = i+z-(x-i) = 2i+z-x$.

A first result is that the sets $\Gamma_{strict}(\mathcal{A})$ are closely linked to the set of admissible sequences whose definition was recalled in the introduction.

Proposition 1 Let $A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be a sequence in $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}^{\mathbb{N}}$, such that $a_0 = t \in [0, b]$. Suppose that the sequence A is not equal to $b b b \dots$. Then the sequence A is admissible if and only if $2t > b$ and A belongs to the set $\Gamma_{strict}(\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\})$. (The order on $\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\}$ is induced by the order on \mathbb{N} . From Remark 4 the bar operation is given by

Proof. Let $A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be a sequence belonging to $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ such that $a_0 = t \in [0, b - 1]$, and such that $A \neq b \ b \ b \dots$

* First suppose that $2t > b$ and A belongs to $\Gamma_{strict}(\{b - t, b - t + 1, \dots, t\})$. Then, for all $k \geq 1$, $\bar{A} < \sigma^k A < A$, which clearly implies that A is admissible.

* Now suppose that A is admissible. We thus have

$$\begin{aligned} \forall k \geq 1 \text{ such that } a_{k-1} < b, \quad \sigma^k A &< \frac{A}{b}, \\ \forall k \geq 1 \text{ such that } a_{k-1} > 0, \quad \sigma^k A &> \frac{A}{b}. \end{aligned}$$

We first prove that, if the sequence A is not a constant sequence, then

$$\forall k \geq 1, \quad \bar{A} < \sigma^k A < A.$$

We only prove the inequalities $\sigma^k A < A$. The remaining inequalities are proved in a similar way. If $a_{k-1} < b$, the inequality $\sigma^k A < A$ holds. If $a_{k-1} = b$, there are two cases:

- either $a_0 = a_1 = \dots = a_{k-1} = b$, then, if $a_k < b$ we clearly have $\sigma^k A < A$; if $a_k = b$, then the sequence $\sigma^k A$ begins with some block of b 's followed by a letter $< b$, thus it begins with a block of b 's shorter than the initial block of b 's of the sequence A itself, hence $\sigma^k A < A$;
- or there exists an index ℓ with $1 < \ell < k$, such that $a_{\ell-1} < b$, and $a_\ell = a_{\ell+1} = \dots = a_{k-1} = b$. As A is admissible, we have $\sigma^\ell A < A$. It thus suffices to prove that $\sigma^k A \leq \sigma^\ell A$. This is clearly the case if $a_k < b$. On the other hand, if $a_k = b$, the sequence $\sigma^k A$ begins with a block of b 's which is shorter than the initial block of b 's of the sequence $\sigma^\ell A$, hence $\sigma^k A \leq \sigma^\ell A$.

Now, since $a_0 = t$ and $\sigma^k A < A$ for all $k \geq 1$, we have $a_k \leq t$ for all $k \geq 0$. Similarly, since $\sigma^k A > \bar{A}$ for all $k \geq 1$, we have $a_k \geq b - t$ for all $k \geq 1$. Finally $A > \bar{A}$ implies that $t = a_0 \geq b - t$. We thus have that $2t \geq b$ and A belongs to $\Gamma(\{b - t, b - t + 1, \dots, t\})$. Now, if $b = 2t$, then $\{b - t, b - t + 1, \dots, t\} = \{t\}$ and $\bar{t} = t$. This implies that $A = t \ t \ t \ \dots$, which is not an admissible sequence. \square

Remark 5 For $b = 1$, this (easy) result is noted without proof in [15] and proved in [4].

We need another definition from [1].

Definition 3 Let b be a positive integer, and \mathcal{A} be a finite ordered set with

that \mathcal{A} is equipped with a bar operation as in Definition 2. Let $A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be a periodic sequence of *smallest* period T , and such $a_{T-1} < \max \mathcal{A}$. Let $a_{T-1} = \alpha_j$ (thus $j < b$). Then the sequence $\Phi(A)$ is defined as the $2T$ -periodic sequence beginning with $a_0 \ a_1 \ \dots \ a_{T-2} \ \alpha_{j+1} \ \overline{a_0} \ \overline{a_1} \ \dots \ \overline{a_{T-2}} \ \alpha_{b-j-1}$, i.e.,

$$\Phi((a_0 \ a_1 \ \dots \ a_{T-2} \ \alpha_j)^\infty) := (a_0 \ a_1 \ \dots \ a_{T-2} \ \alpha_{j+1} \ \overline{a_0} \ \overline{a_1} \ \dots \ \overline{a_{T-2}} \ \alpha_{b-j-1})^\infty.$$

We first prove the following easy claim.

Proposition 2 *The smallest element of $\Gamma(\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\})$ (where $2t > b$) is the 2-periodic sequence $(t \ (b-t))^\infty = (t \ (b-t) \ t \ (b-t) \ t \ \dots)$.*

Proof. Since any sequence $A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ belonging to $\Gamma(\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\})$ begins in t , and satisfies $\sigma A \geq \overline{A}$, then it must satisfy $a_0 = t$ and $a_1 \geq b-t$. Now if a sequence A belonging to $\Gamma(\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\})$ is such that $a_0 = t$ and $a_1 = (b-t)$, then it must be equal to the 2-periodic sequence $(t \ (b-t))^\infty$ ([1, Lemma 2, b, p. 73]). Since this periodic sequence trivially belongs to $\Gamma(\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\})$, it is its smallest element. \square

Denoting as usual by Φ^s the s -th iterate of Φ , we state the following theorem which is a particular case of the theorem on pages 72–73 of [1] about the smallest elements in certain subintervals of $\Gamma(\{0, 1, \dots, b\})$, and of the definition of q -mirror sequences given in [1, Section II, 1, p. 67] (here $q = 2$).

Theorem 1 ([1]) *Define $P := (t \ (b-t))^\infty = (t \ (b-t) \ t \ (b-t) \ t \ \dots)$. The smallest nonperiodic sequence in the set $\Gamma(\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\})$ (i.e., the smallest element of $\Gamma_{\text{strict}}(\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\})$) is the sequence M defined by*

$$M := \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \Phi^s(P),$$

that actually takes the (not necessarily distinct) values $b-t, b-t+1, t-1, t$. Furthermore, this sequence $M = (m_n)_{n \geq 0} = t \ b-t+1 \ b-t \ t \ b-t \ t-1 \ \dots$ can be recursively defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \forall k \geq 0, \ m_{2^{2k}-1} &= t, \\ \forall k \geq 0, \ m_{2^{2k+1}-1} &= b+1-t, \\ \forall k \geq 0, \ \forall j \in [0, 2^{k+1}-2], \ m_{2^{k+1}+j} &= \overline{m_j}. \end{aligned}$$

It was proven in [1] that the sequence $\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \Phi^s((t \ (b-t))^\infty)$ is 2-automatic (for more about automatic sequences, see [7]). The second author noted that this sequence is actually a fixed point of a uniform morphism of the form $\lambda \mapsto \lambda \ \overline{\lambda} \ \lambda \ \overline{\lambda} \ \dots$ (see [1, Theorem 1]).

least equal to 4, i.e., $2t \geq b + 3$. (Recall that we always have $t \geq b - t$, i.e., $2t \geq b$.) More precisely we have Theorem 2 below, where the Thue-Morse sequence pops up, as in [1] and in [19], but also as in [2] and [18]. Before stating this theorem we give a definition.

Definition 4 The “universal” morphism Θ is defined on $\{e_0, e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ by

$$\Theta(e_3) := e_3 e_1, \quad \Theta(e_2) := e_3 e_0, \quad \Theta(e_1) := e_0 e_3, \quad \Theta(e_0) := e_0 e_2.$$

Note that this morphism has an infinite fixed point beginning in e_3

$$\Theta^\infty(e_3) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Theta^k(e_3) = e_3 \ e_1 \ e_0 \ e_3 \ e_0 \ e_2 \ e_3 \ e_1 \ e_0 \ e_2 \dots$$

Theorem 2 *Let $(\varepsilon_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be the Thue-Morse sequence, defined by $\varepsilon_0 = 0$ and for all $k \geq 0$, $\varepsilon_{2k} = \varepsilon_k$ and $\varepsilon_{2k+1} = 1 - \varepsilon_k$. Then the smallest nonperiodic sequence $M = (m_n)_{n \geq 0}$ belonging to $\Gamma(\{b - t, b - t + 1, \dots, t\})$ satisfies*

$$\forall n \geq 0, \quad m_n = \varepsilon_{n+1} - (2t - b - 1)\varepsilon_n + t - 1.$$

Using the morphism Θ introduced in Definition 4 above we thus have

- if $2t \geq b + 3$, then the sequence M is the fixed point beginning in t of the morphism deduced from Θ by renaming e_0, e_1, e_2, e_3 respectively $b - t, b - t + 1, t - 1, t$ (note that the condition $2t \geq b + 3$ implies that these four numbers are distinct);
- if $2t = b + 2$ (thus $b - t + 1 = t - 1$), then the sequence M is the pointwise image of the fixed point beginning in e_3 of the morphism Θ by the map g defined by $g(e_3) := t, g(e_2) = g(e_1) := t - 1, g(e_0) := b - t$;
- if $2t = b + 1$ (thus $b - t = t - 1$ and $b - t + 1 = t$), then the sequence M is the pointwise image of the fixed point beginning in e_3 of the morphism Θ by the map h defined by $h(e_3) = h(e_1) := t, h(e_2) = h(e_0) := t - 1$.

Proof. Let us first prove that the sequence $M = (m_n)_{n \geq 0}$ is equal to the sequence $(u_n)_{n \geq 0}$, where $u_n := \varepsilon_{n+1} - (2t - b - 1)\varepsilon_n + t - 1$. It suffices to prove that the sequence $(u_n)_{n \geq 0}$ satisfies the recursive relations defining $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$ that are given in Theorem 1. Recall that the sequence $(\varepsilon_n)_{n \geq 0}$ has the property that ε_n is equal to the parity of the sum of the binary digits of the integer n (see [6] for example). Hence, for all $k \geq 0$, $\varepsilon_{2^{2k}-1} = 0$, $\varepsilon_{2^{2k+1}-1} = 1$, and $\varepsilon_{2^{2k}} = \varepsilon_{2^{2k+1}} = 1$. This implies that for all $k \geq 0$, $u_{2^{2k}-1} = t$ and $u_{2^{2k+1}-1} = b + 1 - t$. Furthermore, for all $k \geq 0$, and for all $j \in [0, 2^{k+1} - 2]$, we have $\varepsilon_{2^{k+1}+j} = 1 - \varepsilon_j$ and $\varepsilon_{2^{k+1}+j+1} = 1 - \varepsilon_{j+1}$. Hence

To show how the “universal” morphism Θ enters the picture, we study the sequence $(v_n)_{n \geq 0}$ with values in $\{0, 1\}^2$ defined by: for all $n \geq 0$, $v_n := (\varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_{n+1})$. Since we have, for all $n \geq 0$, $v_{2n} = (\varepsilon_n, 1 - \varepsilon_n)$ and $v_{2n+1} = (1 - \varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_{n+1})$, we clearly have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{if } v_n = (0, 0), \text{ then } v_{2n} &= (0, 1) \text{ and } v_{2n+1} = (1, 0), \\ \text{if } v_n = (0, 1), \text{ then } v_{2n} &= (0, 1) \text{ and } v_{2n+1} = (1, 1), \\ \text{if } v_n = (1, 0), \text{ then } v_{2n} &= (1, 0) \text{ and } v_{2n+1} = (0, 0), \\ \text{if } v_n = (1, 1), \text{ then } v_{2n} &= (1, 0) \text{ and } v_{2n+1} = (0, 1). \end{aligned}$$

This exactly means that the sequence $(v_n)_{n \geq 0}$ is the fixed point beginning in $(0, 1)$ of the 2-morphism

$$\begin{aligned} (0, 0) &\rightarrow (0, 1)(1, 0) \\ (0, 1) &\rightarrow (0, 1)(1, 1) \\ (1, 0) &\rightarrow (1, 0)(0, 0) \\ (1, 1) &\rightarrow (1, 0)(0, 1) \end{aligned}$$

We may define $e_0 := (1, 0)$, $e_1 := (1, 1)$, $e_2 := (0, 0)$, $e_3 := (0, 1)$. Then the above morphism can be written

$$e_3 \rightarrow e_3e_1, \quad e_2 \rightarrow e_3e_0, \quad e_1 \rightarrow e_0e_3, \quad e_0 \rightarrow e_0e_2$$

which is the morphism Θ . The above construction shows that the sequence $(v_n)_{n \geq 0}$ is a fixed point of Θ .

Now, define the map ω on $\{0, 1\}^2$ by

$$\omega((x, y)) := y - (2t - b - 1)x + t - 1.$$

We have $\omega(v_n) = m_n$ for all $n \geq 0$. Thus

- if $2t \geq b + 3$, the sequence $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$ takes exactly four distinct values, namely $b - t, b - t + 1, t - 1, t$. This implies that $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$ is the fixed point beginning in t of the morphism obtained from Θ by renaming the letters, i.e., $e_3 \rightarrow t$, $e_2 \rightarrow (t - 1)$, $e_1 \rightarrow (b - t + 1)$, $e_0 \rightarrow (b - t)$. The morphism can thus be written $t \rightarrow t (b - t + 1)$, $(t - 1) \rightarrow t (b - t)$, $(b - t + 1) \rightarrow (b - t) t$, $(b - t) \rightarrow (b - t) (t - 1)$;
- if $2t = b + 2$ (resp. $2t = b + 1$) the sequence $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$ takes exactly three (resp. two) values, namely $b - t, t - 1, t$ (resp. $t - 1, t$). It is still the pointwise image by Θ of the sequence $(v_n)_{n \geq 0}$. Renaming Θ as g (resp. h) as in the statement of Theorem 2 only takes into account that the integers $b - t, b - t + 1, t - 1, t$ are not distinct. \square

Remark 6 The reason for the choice of indexes for e_3, e_2, e_1, e_0 is that the order of indexes is the same as the natural order on the integers $t, t - 1, b - t + 1, b - t$ to which they correspond when $2t \geq b + 3$. In particular if $b = t = 3$, the morphism reads: $3 \rightarrow 31, 2 \rightarrow 30, 1 \rightarrow 03, 0 \rightarrow 02$. Interestingly enough, though not surprisingly, this morphism also occurs (up to renaming once more the letters) in the study of infinite square-free sequences on a 3-letter alphabet. Namely, in the paper [9], Berstel proves that the square-free Istrail sequence [16], originally defined (with no mention of the Thue-Morse sequence) as the fixed point of the (non-uniform) morphism $0 \rightarrow 12, 1 \rightarrow 102, 2 \rightarrow 0$, is actually the pointwise image of the fixed point beginning in 1 of a 2-morphism Θ' on the 4-letter alphabet $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ by the map $0 \rightarrow 0, 1 \rightarrow 1, 2 \rightarrow 2, 3 \rightarrow 0$. The morphism Θ' is given by

$$\Theta'(0) = 12, \Theta'(1) = 13, \Theta'(2) = 20, \Theta'(3) = 21.$$

The reader will note immediately that Θ' is another avatar of Θ obtained by renaming letters as follows: $0 \rightarrow 2, 1 \rightarrow 3, 2 \rightarrow 0, 3 \rightarrow 1$. This, in particular, shows that *the sequence $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$, in the case where $2t = b + 2$, is the fixed point of the non-uniform morphism $t \rightarrow t (t - 1) (b - t), (t - 1) \rightarrow t (b - t), (b - t) \rightarrow (t - 1)$, i.e., an avatar of Istrail's square-free sequence. Furthermore it results from [9] that this sequence on three letters cannot be the fixed point of a uniform morphism.* A last remark is that the square-free Brauholtz sequence on three letters given in [10] (see also [9, p. 18-07]) is exactly our sequence $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$ when $t = b = 2$, i.e., the sequence $2 1 0 2 0 1 2 1 0 1 2 0 \dots$

3 Small admissible sequences and small univoque numbers with given integer part

3.1 Small admissible sequences with values in the set $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$

In [19] the authors are interested in the smallest admissible sequence with values in the set $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$, where b is an integer ≥ 1 . They prove in particular the following result, which is an immediate corollary of our Theorem 2.

Corollary 1 (Theorems 4.3 and 5.1 of [19]) *Let b be an integer ≥ 1 . The smallest admissible sequence with values in $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ is the sequence $(z + \varepsilon_{n+1})_{n \geq 0}$ if $b = 2z + 1$, and $(z + \varepsilon_{n+1} - \varepsilon_n)_{n \geq 0}$ if $b = 2z$.*

Proof. Let $A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be the smallest (non-constant) admissible sequence with values in $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$. Since $A > \overline{A}$, we must have $a_0 \geq \overline{a_0} = b - a_0$.

Thus, if $b = 2z + 1$ we have $a_0 \geq z + 1$. We also have, for all $i \geq 0$, $\overline{a_0} \leq a_i \leq a_0$. Now the smallest element of the set $\Gamma(\{b - z - 1, b - z, \dots, z - 1, z + 1\})$ is the smallest admissible sequence on $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ that begins in $z + 1$. Hence this is the smallest admissible sequence with values in $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$. Theorem 2 gives that this sequence is $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$ with, for all $n \geq 0$, $m_n = \varepsilon_{n+1} + z$.

If $b = 2z$, we have $a_0 \geq z$. But if $a_0 = z$, then $\overline{a_0} = z$, and the conditions of admissibility implies that $a_n = z$ for all $n \geq 0$ and $(a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ would be the constant sequence $(z z z \dots)$. Hence we must have $a_0 \geq z + 1$. Now the smallest element of the set $\Gamma(\{b - z - 1, b - z, \dots, z - 1, z + 1\})$ is the smallest admissible sequence on $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ that begins in $z + 1$. Hence this is the smallest admissible sequence with values in $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$. Theorem 2 gives that this sequence is $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$ with, for all $n \geq 0$, $m_n = \varepsilon_{n+1} - \varepsilon_n + z$. \square

3.2 Small univoque numbers with given integer part

We are interested here in the univoque numbers λ in an interval $(b, b + 1]$ with b a positive integer. This set was studied in [17], where it was proven of Lebesgue measure 0. Since $1 = \sum_{j \geq 0} a_j \lambda^{-(j+1)}$, $\lambda \in (b, b + 1]$ and $a_0 \leq b$, the fact that the expansion of 1 is unique, hence equal to the greedy expansion, implies that $a_0 = b$. In other words, we study the admissible sequences with values in $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ that begin in b , i.e., the set $\Gamma_{strict}(\{0, 1, \dots, b\})$. We prove here, as a corollary of Theorem 2, that, for any positive integer b , there exists a smallest univoque number belonging to $(b, b + 1]$. This result was obtained in [14] (see the penultimate remark in that paper); it generalizes the result obtained for $b = 1$ in [18].

Corollary 2 *For any positive integer b , there exists a smallest univoque number in the interval $(b, b + 1]$. This number is the solution of the equation $1 = \sum_{n \geq 0} d_n \lambda^{-n-1}$, where the sequence $(d_n)_{n \geq 0}$ is given by, for all $n \geq 0$, $d_n := \varepsilon_{n+1} - (b - 1)\varepsilon_n + b - 1$.*

Proof. It suffices to apply Theorem 2 with $t = b$. \square

4 Transcendence results

We prove here, mimicking the proof given in [3], that numbers such that the expansion of 1 is given by the sequence $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$ are transcendental. This

Theorem 3 Let b be an integer ≥ 1 and $t \in [0, b]$ be an integer such that $2t \geq b + 1$. Define the sequence $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$ as in Theorem 2 by, for all $n \geq 0$, $m_n := \varepsilon_{n+1} - (2t - b - 1)\varepsilon_n + t - 1$, thus the sequence $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$ begins with $t \ b - t + 1 \ b - t \ t \ b - t \ t - 1 \dots$. Then the number λ belonging to $(1, b + 1)$ defined by $1 = \sum_{n \geq 0} m_n \lambda^{-n-1}$ is transcendental.

Proof. Define the ± 1 Thue-Morse sequence (r_n) by $r_n := (-1)^{\varepsilon_n}$. We clearly have $r_n = 1 - 2\varepsilon_n$ (recall that ε_n is 0 or 1). It is also immediate that the function F defined for the complex numbers X such that $|X| < 1$ by $F(X) = \sum_{n \geq 0} r_n X^n$ satisfies $F(X) = \prod_{k \geq 0} (1 - X^{2^k})$ (see, e.g., [6]). Since

$$2m_n = 2\varepsilon_{n+1} - 2(2t - b - 1)\varepsilon_n + 2t - 2 = b - r_{n+1} + (2t - b - 1)r_n$$

we have, for $|X| < 1$,

$$2X \sum_{n \geq 0} m_n X^n = ((2t - b - 1)X - 1)F(X) + 1 + \frac{bX}{1 - X}.$$

Taking $X = 1/\lambda$ where $1 = \sum_{n \geq 0} m_n \lambda^{-n-1}$, we get the equation

$$2 = ((2t - b - 1)\lambda^{-1} - 1)F(1/\lambda) + 1 + \frac{b}{\lambda - 1}.$$

Now, if λ were algebraic, then this equation shows that $F(1/\lambda)$ would be an algebraic number. But, since $1/\lambda$ would be an algebraic number in $(0, 1)$, the quantity $F(1/\lambda)$ would be transcendental from a result of Mahler [20], giving a contradiction. \square

Remark 7 In particular the $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ -univoque number corresponding to the smallest admissible sequence with values in $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ is transcendental, as proved in [19] (Theorems 4.3 and 5.9). Also the smallest univoque number belonging to $(b, b + 1)$ is transcendental.

5 Conclusion

There are many papers dealing with univoque numbers. We will just mention here the study of univoque Pisot numbers. The authors together with K. G. Hare determined in [5] the smallest univoque Pisot number, which happens to have algebraic degree 14. Note that the number corresponding to the sequence of Proposition 2 is the larger real root of the polynomial $X^2 - tX - (b - t + 1)$, hence a Pisot number (which is unitary if $t = b$). Also note that for any $b \geq 2$, the real number β such that the β -expansion

It would be interesting to determine the smallest univoque Pisot number belonging to $(b, b + 1)$: the case $b = 1$ was addressed in [5], but the proof uses heavily the fine structure of Pisot numbers in the interval $(1, 2)$ (see [8, 21, 22]). A similar study of Pisot numbers in $(b, b + 1)$ would certainly help.

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